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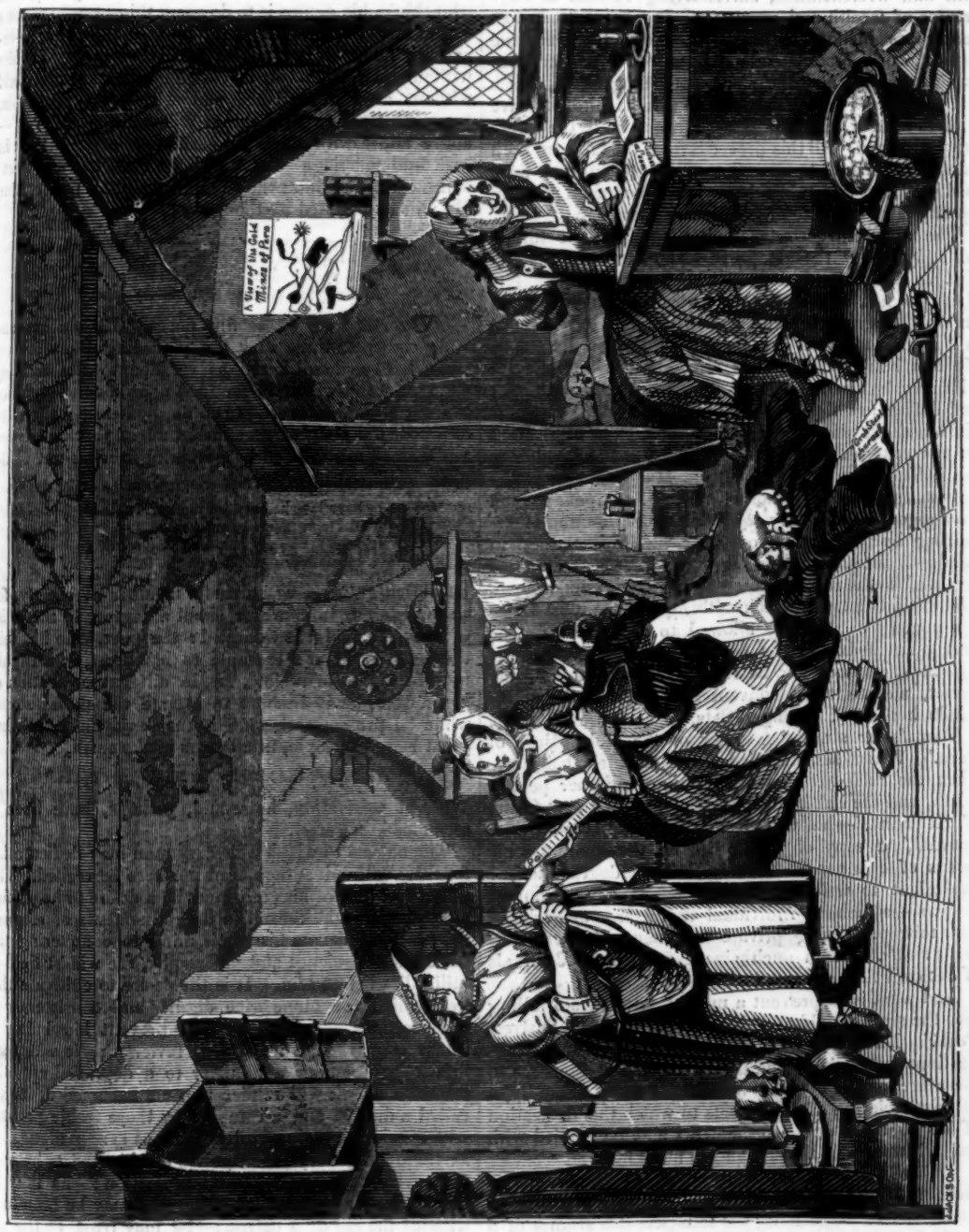
HOGARTH AND HIS WORKS.—No. V.

[The Distrest Poet.]



The principal figure in this work of Hogarth is understood to be a portrait of Lewis Theobald, who is best known as one of the editors of Shakspeare. Of this author the world has probably formed too unfavourable

an opinion, in consequence of the ridicule which surrounds his name in Pope's 'Dunciad.' His edition of Shakspeare is by no means a contemptible performance, although his poems and plays are forgotten.

The print before us is an admirable composition; and the instruction which it contains lies deeper than the merely ludicrous effect at which it might be supposed the artist had aimed. The poet is the representative of a class that the world has been always too much inclined to treat with cold contempt or more insolent pity. The poor and unknown man of letters, surrounded with all the discomforts that belong to an ill-conditioned domestic life,—and yet, in the midst of filth and wretchedness, surrendering himself to day-dreams of wealth and greatness,—is a being that most people are inclined to sneer at. But let the same author work himself into reputation and comparative prosperity, and the same people agree to idolize and flatter him—to make fêtes to exhibit him—to give dinners to hear him talk—to patronize as if they were the patronized. All this proceeds from mistakes on both sides. The author sees the public through a false medium, and the public have been pampered into an equally false estimate of the literary character.

The apparently wretched, but perhaps not totally unhappy, being that Hogarth has delineated, is occupied in the composition of 'Riches, a Poem.' His ideas do not appear to flow with much facility;—and his similes, and metaphors, and rhymes, are to be sought in 'Bysshe's Art of Poetry,' which lies on his table. He sits half-clothed in his morning-gown, while his wife mends his one nether-garment, and his one shirt and ruffles are drying at the fire. His dress-sword is kicked about the floor, and the cat suckles her kittens on the coat which is to be paraded in the evening at the coffee-house or the theatre. His infant is vainly screaming in bed for a mother's help:—the poor woman is engaged in the not very feminine occupation of repairing her husband's out-door habiliments, and in helplessly listening, with her "mild, patient face and gesture," to the remonstrances of the saucy milk-woman, who exhibits a tally, which nothing but the most hopeless poverty would have allowed to accumulate. The poet is insensible to the degradation which his gentle wife must endure: and he resigns himself to his filthy garret, and to the inconvenience and disorder of his whole household arrangements, to compose 'Riches, a Poem,'—or study 'A View of the Gold Mines of Peru.' When his miseries arrive at their height,—when the milk-woman will trust not another penny-worth, and the baker talks of applying to the "Court of Requests,"—he will resort to the 'Grub Street Journal,' a copy of which lies on the floor, for his means of existence. This is the last degradation,—equivalent to writing, at the present day, dishonest reviews,—attacking individual character,—or garbling and misrepresenting private documents, *because they are private*. From such sins even *literary* Journals of our own time are not exempt.

And what is to prevent a man of letters from falling into the same pitiable condition as Hogarth's 'Distrest Poet?' First, a careful examination of his own qualifications before he adventures upon the perilous sea of literature, as the business of his life;—and, secondly, a just appreciation of the objects to which this dedication of his faculties and acquirements may be applied with real advantage to himself and to mankind.

In the first place, many men, especially young men, fall into the mistake of despising the toil of trade, and of neglecting the indispensable studies of a profession, for the purpose of surrendering themselves to a dreamy belief that the vocation of an author is one of constant ease,—that he has nothing to do but watch the "moods of his own mind"—that flights of fancy may be readily coined into guineas—and that "genius," as they call it, is above all rules and all laborious discipline. A man of real "genius"—but one whom the very force of his talent would lead to know the value of constant exertion—has beautifully described the delusions of this feeling:—

> "My whole life I have lived in pleasant thought,
> As if life's business were a summer mood;
> As if all needful things would come unsought
> To genial faith, still rich in genial good;—
> But how can he expect that others should
> Build for him, sow for him, and at his call
> Love him, who for himself will take no heed at all?"

This is precisely the mistake into which the young man who thinks his genius is to do every thing—who expects "that others should build for him, sow for him,"—invariably falls. His "genius" will do nothing for him without cultivation. If he cast himself upon the world without an independence and without a profession, fancying "all needful things will come unsought,"—above all, if with these unreasonable expectations he rush into marriage—the state of 'The Distrest Poet' will but feebly exhibit the wretchedness that awaits him. He will be haunted by thoughts of

> ——————"the fear that kills;
> And hope that is unwilling to be fed;
> Cold, pain, and labour, and all fleshly ills;
> And mighty poets in their misery dead."

Wordsworth, from whose fine poem, 'Resolution and Independence,' these and the preceding lines are extracted, describes himself as recalled to the trusting state of mind which is founded upon a contemplation of what strenuous exertion can do, by hearing the story of a poor old man, who wandered about year after year, and gained a livelihood by gathering leeches out of the pools of barren moors:—

> "I could have laughed myself to scorn to find
> In that decrepit man so firm a mind.
> 'God,' said I, 'be my help and stay secure;
> I'll think of the leech-gatherer on the lonely moor.'"

The leech-gatherer was a useful member of society, for he ministered, in however small a degree, to the relief of the sick and the wounded: the poet, who has laid the leech-gatherer's example to his heart, is a highly useful member of society, for, by diligent cultivation of his powers, he is enabled to elevate the moral sense, while he promotes the intellectual enjoyment of that great body of people, in all parts of the earth,

> "Who speak the tongue that Shakspeare spake."

Without cultivation, he would, perhaps, have been a scribbler in a garret.

The objects to which a literary man may dedicate his faculties with advantage need not here be recited. The unerring guide of his path must be a desire to be useful. Whether he yield himself to the refinements of elegant literature, or devote his whole mind to conquering the difficulties of science and philosophy, the widest field of utility lies before him. It is the desire to cultivate this field which can alone give dignity and consistency to his exertions. This desire will prevent his being a flimsy essayist or a fraudulent reviewer;—it will save him from becoming a minister to a depraved appetite for scandal;—it will render him not ashamed of being called a drudge and a compiler by those feeble persons who consider learning and dulness as synonymous. If he thoroughly obey the impulses of this desire, he may find even literature a gainful profession:—he may be the head of a happy household;—he may be honoured without the aid of a patron;—he may trust to the approbation of the people, and despise the applause of clubs and coteries, who erect temples to selfishness in the name of society, and end in becoming their own worshippers.

MINERAL KINGDOM.—Section XXII.

[The author of the Articles in the 'Penny Magazine' on the products of the 'Mineral Kingdom' has been for a long time prevented from continuing the series by matters of urgent importance requiring his attention. He hopes to be able to send his contributions henceforth at short intervals.]

In conformity with the plan upon which we set out, the next product of the Mineral Kingdom of which we propose to treat is Iron. Of all the substances which we derive from the bowels of the earth, this is the most indispensable to our wants. In whatever situation we may be placed, we cannot look around us without iron meeting our eye in some shape or other; and even where it is not seen, it has been more or less employed in producing almost every object that ministers to our necessities, our comforts, or our luxuries,—in short, it has been one of the great instruments by which the civilization of the human race has been accomplished.

Next to coal, iron is the most important of the mineral treasures of the United Kingdom, and forms one of the main sources of our national wealth. The total amount of coals raised annually in Great Britain and Ireland cannot be less than 20,000,000 of tons; and taking seven shillings a ton as the average price at the pit's mouth, we have a total value of 7,000,000*l*. The gross quantity of iron produced by the furnaces of Great Britain has been calculated to amount annually to about 700,000 tons; and the value of *pig-iron*, as it is technically termed,—that is, iron in its rudest state, before any other labour has been expended upon it beyond what was necessary to extract the metal from the ore,—at the present market price of 5*l*. per ton, gives a total value of 3,500,000*l*.

But before proceeding with our account of the natural history of iron, some preliminary observations on metals in general will be necessary for such of our readers as are unacquainted with chemistry and mineralogy. All branches of science are so intimately connected one with another, that it is scarcely possible to give an intelligible popular view of a part of any one of them without presupposing in the reader some acquaintance with others. Scientific terms and hard names must of necessity be used in those cases where there are no other forms of words by which the meaning can be conveyed.

The term metal is applied to those mineral substances which exhibit, when in a state of purity, that is, when freed from combination with foreign ingredients, the following properties:—They are impenetrable by light, even when beaten out into plates or leaves of extreme thinness, and are therefore said to be opaque; they have that peculiar shining lustre which we term metallic; they are combustible, but at various degrees of heat; they are good conductors of heat and electricity, that is, heat and electricity pass rapidly through them; and they are, for the most part, heavy when compared with other bodies, and are thus said to have a high specific gravity. This last property, however, is not universal, for some are so light as to swim on the surface of water; but all the metals known in common life are heavy bodies, the lightest of them being nearly seven times as heavy as water, bulk for bulk. There are three other distinctive properties of metals, which, however, are not common to all of them, and vary in degree, viz. *malleability*, or the property of being capable of being hammered into thin plates or leaves (from *malleus*, Latin for a hammer); *ductility*, or the property of being capable of being drawn out into wire (from *ductilis*, Latin for easily drawn); and *tenacity*, or the property of supporting a heavy weight without breaking (from *tenax*, Latin for holding fast). Metals are, moreover, *fusible* (from a part of a Latin verb signifying to melt), that is, are capable of being melted by heat, but at different degrees of temperature, some of them being liquid at the ordinary temperature of the air,—such as mercury or quicksilver,—others requiring the strongest heats we are capable of exciting in our furnaces before they will soften.

The number of metals hitherto discovered amounts to forty-two, but we shall confine ourselves at present to those which are used in the metallic state in the business of common life, and of which there are eleven, viz. gold, silver, mercury, iron, copper, tin, lead, platinum, bismuth, zinc, and antimony. Of these the first seven only were known to the ancients. Specific gravity is the property which has been determined with the greatest degree of precision, and how various that is will be seen by the following table. An equal bulk of distilled water, at the temperature of 60°, is taken as the standard of comparison, and is represented by the figures 1·00.

Platinum ..	20·98	Silver.....	10·47	Tin	7·29
Gold.....	19·25	Bismuth ..	9·82	Zinc	7·10
Mercury...	13·56	Copper....	8·89	Antimony..	6·70
Lead	11·35	Iron.....	7·78		

All these metals are found to stand in entirely different orders, when we arrange them according to their respective specific gravities, fusibility, malleability, ductility, and tenacity, as appears by the following table, in which the metal possessing the property in the highest degree stands first in the column.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.	FUSIBILITY.	MALLEABILITY.	DUCTILITY.	TENACITY.
Platinum	Mercury	Gold	Gold	Iron
Gold	Tin	Silver	Silver	Copper
Mercury	Bismuth	Copper	Platinum	Platinum
Lead	Lead	Tin	Iron	Silver
Silver	Zinc	Platinum	Copper	Gold
Bismuth	Antimony	Lead	Lead, Bismuth,	Zinc
Copper	Silver	Zinc	Tin, Zinc, and	Tin
Iron	Copper	Iron	Antimony can-	Lead
Tin	Gold	Bismuth and	not be drawn	Bismuth and
Zinc	Iron	Antimony	out into wires.	Antimony
Antimony	Platinum	are brittle.		are brittle.

We have no thermometer to measure high degrees of heat with exactness. Chemists have for that purpose sometimes used an instrument invented by the ingenious Wedgwood, to whom the country is so largely indebted for his improvements of earthenware, and for the classical elegance of forms which he was the first to introduce in that branch of our manufactures,—a debt which the country has never paid, for due honour has never been done to his memory. Mr. Wedgwood having found by experiment that fine clay contracts equally by increase of heat, contrived an instrument which he called a Pyrometer (from *pyr*, Greek for fire, —and *metron*, measure); but from the difficulty of always finding clay of the same quality, the principle was not capable of being generally adopted in practice. An instrument has very lately been invented by Mr. Daniel, from which more correct measurements will be obtained.

Mercury remains liquid much below the greatest degree of cold known in our climate; tin, bismuth, lead, zinc, and antimony are fusible at a red heat; iron requires a very high temperature, and platinum one far more intense, before they can be melted. As mercury is only solid at a cold 72° below the temperature of freezing water, we cannot say anything about its malleability, ductility, or tenacity. Iron has so great a degree of tenacity, that a wire not thicker than 0·787 of a line will support 550 pounds weight, while gold, which is infinitely more malleable and ductile, if drawn into a wire of the same diameter, will not support more than 150 pounds.

All metals are simple bodies, that is, they cannot, by any process with which we are acquainted, be resolved into elements still more simple. It is very possible, however,—nay, according to all analogy, highly probable, that future discoveries will show that they are

compounded of two or more substances of distinct natures, perhaps gases. Nothing looks more unlike air than water does, and yet that heavy fluid is composed of, and may, by a very easy process, be converted into, two light gases; and, what is no less strange, one of the gases entering into the composition of that which is most effectual in extinguishing fire, is one of the most inflammable bodies with which we are acquainted. The gases, when once produced by the decomposition of water, can, moreover, by a no less easy process, be re-united, and form water again.

With the exception of gold, silver, platinum, and copper, it is rare to find any of the metals in nature in a state of purity. When so found, the term *native* has been applied to them; and mineralogists speak of native gold, native copper, &c. They are usually found in combination with oxygen, sulphur, or acids; and occasionally two or more metals are combined, when they form what is called a *native alloy*. When united with oxygen, they are said to be in the state of *oxides;* when with sulphur, they are called *sulphurets;* and when with an acid, the name of the acid is brought forward: thus, when lead is found in combination with sulphuric acid, it is said to be in the state of *sulphate of lead*. But in all these states there is usually a great mixture of earths. Metals so combined with foreign ingredients are said, in the language of mining, to be in the state of *ore*. Ores have very frequently a bright metallic lustre,—are often found in beautiful regularly-formed crystals, like salts; but in most cases they would be undistinguishable by a common observer from an ordinary stone. So much is this the case, that it has happened that roads have, for a length of time, been mended with what was thought to be nothing but stone, but which was afterwards discovered to be a metallic ore of great value.

Metals are not peculiar to any of the stratified or the unstratified rocks, for they have been found in all of them; but they are met with in greatest abundance in the inferior strata, and occur chiefly in what are called mineral veins, which are cracks in the continuity of the rock, filled up and branching through it, like the veins which convey the blood through our bodies in endless ramifications. The manner in which mineral veins have been formed is a subject of great obscurity, from the very complicated appearances they present; but, in a great proportion of instances, their formation is explicable on the supposition of cracks and fissures having been formed in the rock by some violent force, the rents so formed being afterwards filled up by the injection of the ores in a fluid state from the interior of the earth.

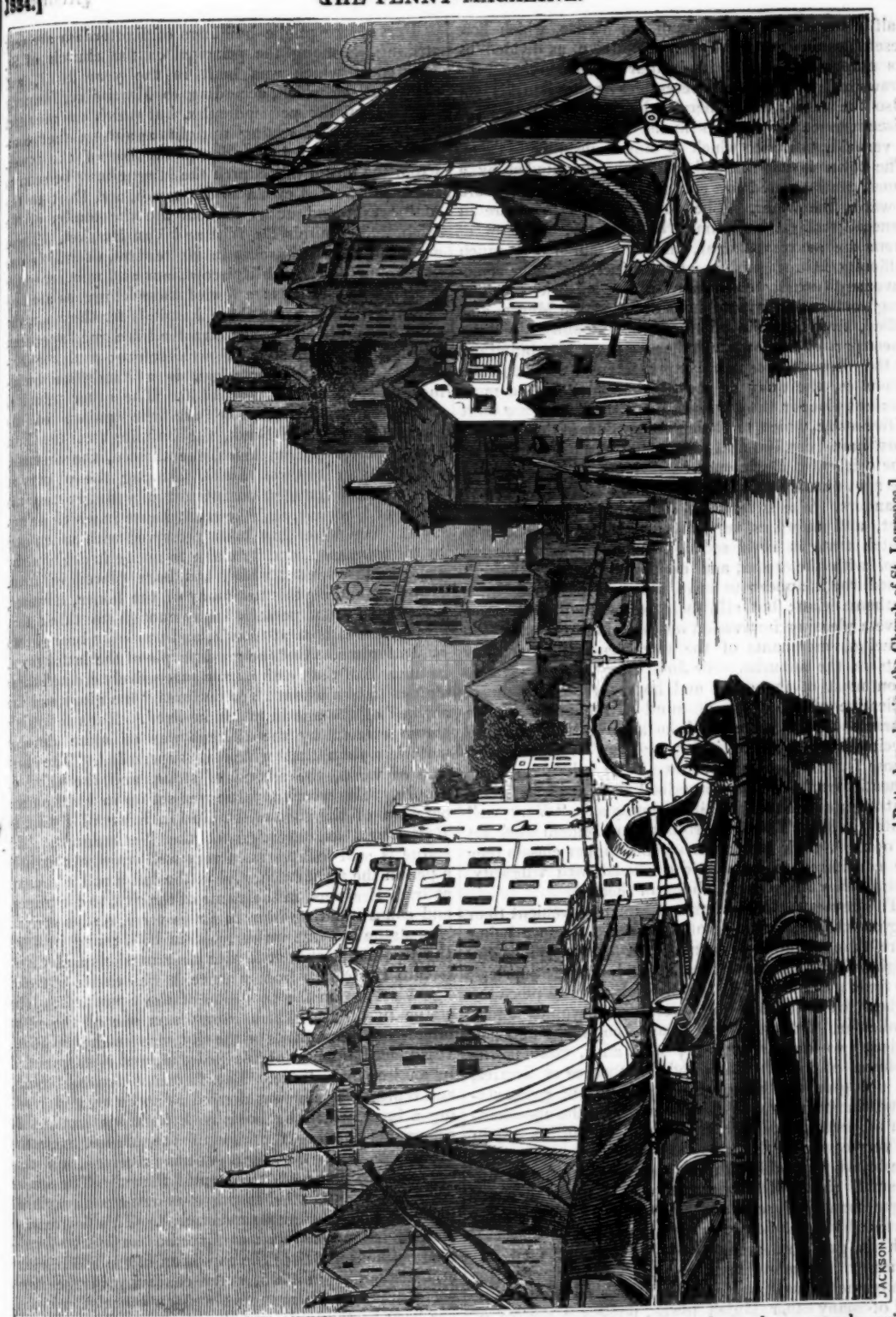
By a series of artificial processes, which vary according to the nature of the ore, the metal is separated from the other mineral substances with which it is in combination. This art of obtaining metals in a state of purity, technically called *metallurgy* (from the Latin *metallum*, metal, and the Greek *ergon*, work), forms a most important department of chemical science, one to which the attention of philosophers cannot be too strongly directed, with the view to discover improvements in working the ores, so as to obtain the greatest amount of metal at the least possible expense. It is much to be feared that a great amount of wealth is lost to the country in consequence of this important branch of manufacture, as it may be termed, being conducted, in very many cases, by persons who have not had the advantage of a scientific education. They are thus not only incapable of applying the principles of science already known, but of taking advantage of those opportunities which their extensive experience in the practical art may afford of making new and important discoveries, to the advancement not only of their particular department, but of science in general.

ROTTERDAM.

In a late Number of the 'Penny Magazine' an account was given of Amsterdam, the first city of the kingdom of Holland for wealth and population. In these respects Rotterdam, another city of the same kingdom, is inferior only to Amsterdam, although, in nominal rank, it occupies but the seventh place among the towns of its own province of South Holland. This anomaly resembles that in this country which regarded towns with a population of perhaps 10,000 souls as cities and provincial capitals, while others, with a population of perhaps 100,000, were in law only entitled to the rank of villages. Rotterdam is a sea-port town, situated on the north bank of the Meuse, or Maas, which is there about a mile in width; it is about twenty miles from its mouth; and lies in latitude 51° 55′ north, and longitude 4° 29′ east, twelve miles from the Hague, and thirty-six from Amsterdam. The breadth of the town is traversed by the Rotte or Roter, a small river which here falls into the Meuse, and gives its name to the city.

Little is known concerning the origin of Rotterdam. Robert Cenalis, the Bishop of Avranches, in the reign of Francis I., gives it a high antiquity, in his 'Historia Gallica,' affirming that it was founded by one Rotter, king of France, who gave it his name. This statement is supported by the curious old contemporary writer Trithème, who states that it was founded in 808, and that Rutter, the twenty-third king of the French, was interred there. To this there are only three objections: that history knows nothing of King Rutter,—that the situation of the town on the river Rotter sufficiently explains the origin of the name,—and that the site of the town continued to be inundated by the Meuse at a period much later than the time of its supposed foundation by King Rutter. It would hardly be worth while to mention such absurdities were it not for the sake of illustrating the facility with which tales are invented, or analogies are found, to explain things which are thought to need explanation. All that we know with certainty is, that, about the year 1270, the town was walled, and received the title and privileges of a city. The growth of the town to that importance which it ultimately attained was very gradual, but took place principally during the period in which the United Provinces were under the yoke of Spain. The other facts of its history are soon related. Twenty-seven years after the date we have mentioned, the town was taken by the Flemings; and, in 1418, by Waldegrave, lord of Brederode. The town was taken possession of by the French in January, 1794; and it suffered much in the general decline of the Dutch commerce during the long period of war which terminated in 1815. If we add to this that the town sustained much damage in February, 1825, in consequence of an extraordinary rise of the waters of the Meuse, we have exhausted the leading facts in the history of Rotterdam.

Rotterdam owes its prosperity entirely to its advantageous situation as a commercial port. The Meuse forms there one of the safest and most commodious harbours in Europe; and the waters are so deep, that the largest vessels can come and take in or discharge their cargoes at the warehouses of the merchants in the midst of the town, by means of the numerous canals by which, even more than Amsterdam or any other Dutch city, it is intersected. It is owing to this facility that the number of vessels which enter and clear out yearly at Rotterdam has generally equalled, and often exceeded, the number at Amsterdam, notwithstanding the greater wealth and population of the latter port. The passage up the Meuse to Rotterdam is also free from ice sooner than that to Amsterdam by the Zuider Zee; and to this it should be added that, on weighing



[Rotterdam, showing the Church of St. Lawrence.]

anchor, vessels can proceed under full sail to the open sea, which is often reached in one tide; whereas those which proceed to Amsterdam are obliged to go round by the Texel. Nevertheless, vessels that draw more than fifteen feet water cannot proceed directly up the Meuse, but are obliged to go round by the Haring Vliet, and, passing near Hellvoetsluis, and through Holands-Diep, proceed round by Willemstadt and Dordrecht to Rotterdam. The necessity for this circumnavigation, in the case of very large vessels, arises from the deposits of sand which have been gradually made at the mouth of the Meuse; but latterly a canal has been cut across Voorne Island, from *near* Hellvoetsluis into the Meuse, through which the largest ships may pass to Rotterdam, instead of the circuitous route by Willemstadt and Dordrecht.

Rotterdam is built in the form of a triangle, the largest side of which extends for about a mile and a

half along the right bank of the Meuse, which here resembles an arm of the sea. The town, as divided by its numerous canals into insular spots connected by draw-bridges, necessarily resembles Amsterdam. Here also the canals are generally bordered with trees, a circumstance which gives to the sea-ports of Holland a vernal appearance which is almost peculiar to them. The town is not fortified, but it is surrounded by a moat, and entered by six gates, two of which are towards the water. The streets of the town are in general straight and long, but narrow. Several of them are so very similar, that a stranger has much difficulty in recognising any distinction. The foot-pavement usually consists of a line of bricks. The long and stately row of houses facing the Meuse, and called, from its row of trees, the 'Boomtjes,' is the finest part of the town, whether we regard its buildings or the pleasant prospect over the Meuse. Next to the Boomtjes, the quay of the Haring Vleit is the most pleasant place in the city. Many of the houses are built of free-stone, which, not being the produce of the country, must have been brought to the spot at a great expense. The celebrated Bayle once resided on this quay,—and the spot on which his house stood is still pointed out to strangers. The suburbs of Rotterdam are very pleasant, and afford a very favourable specimen of the Dutch taste in rural scenery. The gardens, upon a level with the water, and divided from it by a high raised road, appear to have been all designed by a mathematician; but still their neatness and luxuriance leave a pleasing impression on the mind. Most of the principal merchants of the town have their country seats in the suburbs. Sir John Carr informs us, that upon most of the gates and houses there is a motto indicative of the peace of mind of the owner, or the character of the place; and he supplies the following specimens:—"Peace is my garden," "Hope and repose," "Almost out of town," "Look upon those beneath you," (this was inscribed upon a large house that commanded some little cottages,) "Very well content," &c. These inscriptions are seldom used but by opulent tradesmen; among the higher classes they are considered to be a little tinctured with vulgarity, though they sometimes indulge in them.

The houses of Rotterdam are rather convenient than elegant, the peculiar style of Dutch architecture being more than usually prevalent there. They are of the height of four, five, or six stories, and, in some quarters, the front walls project as they ascend, so as to place the higher part of the building several feet beyond the perpendicular. Sir John Carr says that many of them project two or three yards; and adds, that if the freshness of their outsides, and the absence of fissures, did not give the houses the appearance of great stability, the stranger would be induced, by the apprehension of personal danger, to prefer paddling his way in the very centre of the canals to walking in the streets. The bricks with which the houses are constructed are of small size. The windows are in general much larger than in France and England. In many of the houses the ground-floor is not inhabited, but serves, with its gate and arched passage, merely as an entrance to the warehouses behind. In their interior arrangements and furniture, the houses of Rotterdam, and of many other Dutch towns, possess a degree of convenience, lightness, and comfort, which is not often realized on the continent, and is, perhaps, exceeded only in this country. Altogether, no scene can at first be more novel or interesting to a stranger than that which Rotterdam presents;—masts of ships enlivened by gay streamers, beautiful stately trees and lofty leaning houses appear mingled, and at one view he sees before him the characteristic features of the country, the city, and the sea.

Few of the public buildings of Rotterdam are very striking. Among the principal is the church of St. Lawrence, which was built in the year 1472, and the tower of which, according to Martinière, formerly leaned from the perpendicular, but which an architect found means of setting upright again—a fact commemorated by an inscription at the foot of the tower. From the top of this church the Hague may be seen to the north-west, Leyden to the north, and Dort to the south-west; and under its roof are the tombs of the celebrated admirals De Witt and Van Braakel. There are in all fifteen churches in Rotterdam, of which one belongs to the English Episcopalians and another to the Scotch Presbyterians: a few of these churches are fine buildings. There are three hospitals for the poor, the aged, and orphans. The Town Hall is a good specimen of the old Dutch style of architecture; and the Exchange, though rather plain, is a handsome building, finished in the year 1736. The other principal structures worthy of note are the palace of the Great Council, the Bank, the buildings of the East and West India Companies, the theatre, the arsenals, and the gate towards Delft. Among the objects at Rotterdam calculated to interest a stranger are the statue of Erasmus, and the small house in which he was born. The latter has been preserved with much care by his townsmen, and its claim to notice is declared by a Latin inscription, which has been placed in front. Notwithstanding this testimony of the house, however, there have been persons hardy enough to think that Erasmus was born at Gouda, and was only brought up at Rotterdam. But the good people of the latter town, in the zeal of their claim, have successively erected three statues to him whom Pope declares "the glory and the shame" of the age in which he lived. Each following statue erected by the citizens was of more durable materials than that which it superseded. The first was of wood, the second of stone, and the third of bronze. The wooden statue was set up in 1540 on the occasion of the visit of Philip II., King of Spain, to Rotterdam, as sovereign of the Netherlands. The statue is said to have been very well wrought; it held a pen in the right hand, and in the left a roll addressed as from Erasmus, in the name of the city, to the prince, and congratulating him, in Latin verse, on his arrival. The statue in stone was erected in 1557; and in 1572 the Spaniards shot at it with their muskets and threw it into the canal, from whence it was taken out and again set up on the expulsion of the Spaniards. The statue in bronze, which now forms one of the most interesting monuments of the city, was finished in 1622. It is placed upon a marble pedestal, and is surrounded by an iron balustrade. The figure is ten feet high, and represents Erasmus dressed as a doctor, and reading a book, which he holds with both his hands. It ornaments the great bridge of the Meuse, near the Exchange, and the locality has received, on this account, the name of "Erasmus' Place." The statue itself has been applied to purposes never contemplated by those who erected the monument. This figure of a man of letters has been employed as an index of political opinions. Before the expulsion of the Stadtholder and his family in 1795, every concavity in the dress was crammed with oranges; and on other occasions it has been profusely decorated with emblems of quite an opposite signification.

The city possesses a considerable number of literary and commercial institutions. Among them is a society of experimental philosophy, founded in 1769; a society of literature and the fine arts; a college; a grammar school; a public library; a cabinet of antiquities and natural history; a theatre; a chamber of commerce and manufactures; a chamber for the commerce of the Levant and the navigation of the Mediterranean, and a

colonial board. The time of the greatest prosperity of Rotterdam was in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; but after 1795 the invasion of the French and the war with England had a distressing influence, not only on the commerce of Rotterdam, but on that of the country in general. It began to recover in the year 1802, but was again very rapidly depressed by the renewal of the war. The following figures, which show the number of the vessels which arrive at Rotterdam during several years, will serve as a thermometer to indicate the influence of war upon the prosperity of this port. The number of vessels which arrived at Rotterdam was 1786 in the year 1802; 850 in 1803; 693 in 1804; 679 in 1805; 381 in 1806; 294 in 1807; 65 in 1808. In the years 1809, 1810, and still more in 1811, 1812, and 1813, the Dutch trade was almost entirely suspended; but the effects of the overthrow of Buonaparte were speedily indicated by the reviving prosperity of Rotterdam. The number of vessels in the year 1814 was 1284; in 1815, 1603; and in 1817, 1731. Since then the trade and population have continued to advance; and the latter, which is stated to have been 48,000 in the year 1813, amounted to 56,000 in 1826, and exceeds 63,000 at present.

SNOW HARVEST.

In England, and other countries of the north, ices are rarely used, and are considered a luxury of the rich; but in the hot climates of the south, and at Naples and in Sicily particularly, they are classed, during the summer season, among the absolute necessaries of life, and are consumed, in some shape or other, by all classes down to the poorest of the land. We believe there is no traveller that ever past the warm season in those countries but will agree in estimating them and iced water as the greatest of physical blessings. The wine of the country, though kept in the coolest cellars, and the water, though drawn from the deepest well or most gelid source, become, on the shortest exposure to the atmosphere, so tepid and mawkish, that it is scarcely possible to drink them, and, if drunk, they give no refreshment. During the burning, exhausting heats of June, July, and August, even the Neapolitan lazzarone will turn away loathing (*se non c'èpeve*) if there is no snow to cool his draught. But give him a handful of pure sparkling congealed snow to dissolve in his glass, and the poorest wine of a penny a bottle, or plain water, becomes nectar—he drinks joyfully, and is indeed "powerfully refreshed."

We have spoken of "ices" and "iced water," because such are the names (in our own case derived from the true material employed, which is ice) in use in England. But in the south of Italy, it is not ice but snow that is employed in all cases. The quantity that is consumed annually, particularly when the summer proves long and unusually hot, is prodigious. In the low country, even in their coldest winters, snow never lies upon the ground; but in the Apennines that run all through the peninsula they have an exhaustless magazine of that precious substance. A few of the loftiest mountains of that great chain,—as Il gran Sasso d' Italia, or the Great Rock of Italy, and Monte Majello (both in the Abruzzi),—have snow on their summits all the year round, and even glaciers in some of their deep crevices; but, generally speaking, the snow disappears from the ridges of the Apennines towards the end of May, and were not art and precaution employed it could not be made available to man at the season he most wants it. The Neapolitans, therefore, dig deep wells or caverns high up the mountain's sides, or sometimes make use of natural caves among the rocks. Into these, at the proper season, when they can procure it in broad, thick, purely white layers, they throw the snow to be preserved. The snow is well pressed together, and, when the chasm is full, or nearly so, they throw in a quantity of straw, dried leaves, and branches of trees, to keep the external air from the snow, and then shut up the mouth of the well or cavern, which is sometimes, though not always, enclosed by a small, rude stone building. These snow-caves are mostly on the northern face of the mountain. By paying proper attention to their exposition and the points of the compass,—by taking advantage of thick trees that, in summer, afford a cool, dense shade, or of a deep, narrow rift in the rocks where the sun never penetrates,—these depôts may be safely placed as low down the mountain as the snow falls and lies. This is an advantage of no mean value, as the labour and expense of carriage are reduced, the material being nearer market and more easily accessible. When the snow does fall in any quantity on the lower and inhabited ridges of the mountains it gives occasion to great joy and festivity among the peasants, who troop from all parts to collect it, and carry it off to a safe snow-cave. The writer of these pages once witnessed a curious and enlivening scene of the sort. He was travelling from Naples towards Apulia, and was crossing the first, or lower ridge of the Apennines, between the towns of Il Cardinale, and Monte Forte, and Avellino, when suddenly a sharp snow-storm came on, which soon covered the ground with a thick white mantle. As soon as the flakes began to fall quickly and compactly, all the country people set up a joyful shout, and presently men, women, and children all ran out with rakes, shovels, baskets, hand-barrows, rush-mats, and every thing available that they could seize at the moment, to collect the falling treasure. The Israelites in the desert could hardly have shown more joyous feelings at the fall of their manna. They sang—they shouted—they laughed—they kept up a constant fire of jokes, not forgetting, however, to gather in the snow all the while. There was none of that pleasant sport which we call snow-balling—the material and their time, on such an occasion, were too precious to be lost or wasted. Balls, to be sure, were made, and of an enormous size; but these the children carefully rolled along the mountain's side to throw into the snow-caves. They were all evidently foretasting the refreshment and delight to be procured from this gift of winter during the scorching heats of summer, and the suffocating airs of the sirocco, not overlooking, in all probability, the gains to be derived from selling their overstock of snow to their neighbours in the hot thirsty plain of the Terra di Lavoro. As the travellers went by, the groups of busy peasants, men and boys, shouted out to them "Ecco, Signori, una bella raccolta! questa è una bella raccolta!" (Here, Sirs, is a fine harvest! this is a fine harvest!)

To supply the city of Naples, one of the largest capitals of Europe, which has a population of 400,000 souls—all snow-consumers—a very extensive mountain-range is put in requisition. From the Apennines, and from all the nearer branches and ramifications of those mountains, snow, during the summer months, is constantly being brought into the city by land and by sea—always, however, by sea when practicable, as, by that mode of conveyance, it is kept cleaner, loses less by melting, and costs less for carriage. Hundreds of men and boys are employed exclusively on this business.

A mountain that contributes very materially to the supply of the capital is Monte Sant' Angelo, the loftiest point of the bold promontory that separates the Bay of Naples from the Bay of Salerno. This mountain, which towers majestically immediately behind the town and sea-port of Castellamare, near the end of the Neapolitan bay, is only about twelve miles from Naples itself. On account of the short distance, and the advantage of an easy water-carriage, the snow is

there harvested with great industry and care, and Monte Sant' Angelo is well provided with such caves and chasms as we have described. Some of these contain singly an immense heap of snow, but prodigious as the quantity may be, it rapidly disappears before the labours of the workmen, who, with iron-spiked poles and shovels, dig into it and break it up much after the fashion of men working in salt-mines. These labours, for a very obvious reason, when, in the day-time, Fahrenheit's thermometer often marks 90° or 100° in the sun, are nearly all performed during the cool of the evening and night. Long strings of mules, each like a little caravan, ascend the mountain to the snow-caves. There they are loaded with the snow broken into large lumps, and secured from the external atmosphere as well as may be, and then, with all the speed that can be managed with heavy burdens, and on steep, precipitous, and, in parts, very dangerous roads, they descend by Quisisana* to Castellamare and the wharfs, where large, roomy boats are in readiness to receive their loads. As soon as the very perishable cargo of one of these boats is completed, and covered over with straw, dry leaves, and tarpauling, it pushes off direct for Naples. The time of their departure is from eleven or twelve o'clock at night to one or two in the morning. They are all furnished with a mast and sails, which may be useful to them on their return; but as there is seldom a breath of wind on a summer's night in this bay, they are of little use in going to Naples, and the sailors are obliged to pull the boats with oars and long sweeps. This labour, from the clumsy, bad construction of the vessels, and the dead weight thrown into them, is excessively severe, particularly when they are delayed in starting, and threatened with the heat of the rising sun before they can reach the port of Naples. Fire ought to be brought to the aid of snow. A small steam-boat might tow over a line of these vessels without any uncertainty as to time. During the summer nights, at the town of Castellamare, the trampling of the mules from the mountain, the cries and songs of the muleteers, the putting off of the snow-boats, and the shouts of the mariners, the roll of whose heavy oars are heard far across the bay, are scarcely ever interrupted for five minutes at a time.

When the snow-boats arrive in the port of Naples, they are quickly unloaded by a number of facchini, or porters, regularly appointed to that service. These fellows, who are very active and very strong, though their principal food is bread, olives, garlic, and other vegetables, with now and then a good dish of maccaroni, run with their loads of snow from the water-side to a large, cool building erected on purpose to receive it. This building, which is called "La Dogana della neve," or the snow custom-house, is situated a little in the rear of the port, at the distance of a few hundred yards from the great Neapolitan custom-house. To this general depôt the retail dealers come to furnish themselves from all parts of the vast town; and there is scarcely a street in Naples, however miserable and remote it may be, but has its snow-shop. By an old law of the country, these shops are never allowed to be shut up during the hot weather, either by night or by day; or if the owner closes the door or absents himself, he must leave some one in the shop ready to serve should snow be called for. A similar regulation, only extending all the year through, applies to apothecaries' shops. With respect to the venders of physic, the old law is pretty well let go to sleep, but the popular want and habit keep it awake in regard to the snow-dealers. It must be remarked, however, that snow itself is both a medicine and a medicament;—it is taken internally, alone, or mixed with syrups and drugs, and it is used in outward topical applications for head-aches, sprains, and an almost infinite variety of cases. The quantity consumed in this way is very great. Snow, indeed, may be called the best physician and the best surgeon of the poor Neapolitans, who do not often consult any other.

* A beautiful royal villa, with a small village near it, on the mountain's side above Castellamare, is so called. The Italian compound, "Qui si sana," being rendered literally, is in English "Here one recovers health."

RICHES.

It is the mind that maketh good or ill,
That maketh wretch or happie, rich or poore:
For some, that hath abundance at his will,
Hath not enough, but wants in greater store;
And other, that hath little, asks no more,
But in that little is both rich and wise:
For wisdome is most riches; fooles therefore
They are which fortunes do by vowes devise;
Since each unto himself his life may fortunize.

Spenser.

Board and Lodging of the Esquimaux near Icy Cape.—During the day we visited the village, consisting of tents constructed of a few sticks placed in the ground and meeting at the top, so as to give the dwelling, when covered with hides, a conical form. Those which, as in the present instance, are intended for a high degree of cold, have also a lining of rein-deer skins. A few logs formed the floor, on which the skins for sleeping were spread out. They cook their provisions in the open air in earthen pots, into which they put the blood, entrails, blubber, and flesh together. Their chief food is the walrus, seal, rein-deer, and fish: and as they procure more in summer than is required for immediate use, the rest is buried in the sand for winter consumption. They very kindly dug up a seal which had evidently been deposited for some time; and one of them offered us a handful of the intestines to eat, but the sight of it was quite sufficient for our appetites. They eat the flesh of the rein-deer in its raw state.—*MS. Journal of a Voyage of Discovery.*

*** We deviate from the plan of not inserting Advertisements (to which we have rigidly adhered, except on one former occasion), for the purpose of announcing the intentions of the Society as to the future publication of *Almanacs* and other *Yearly Manuals*.

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